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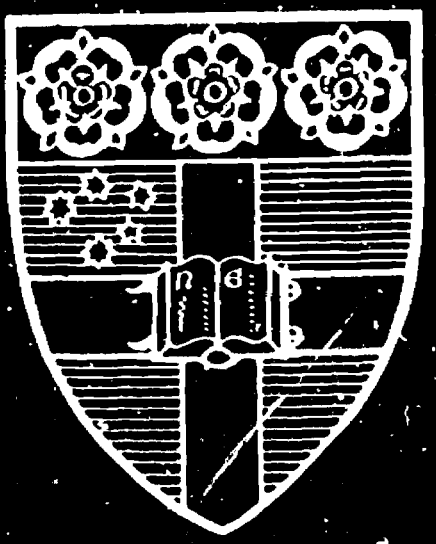
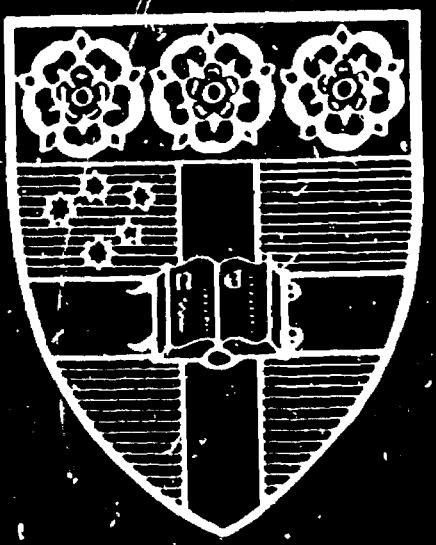
ABSTRACT

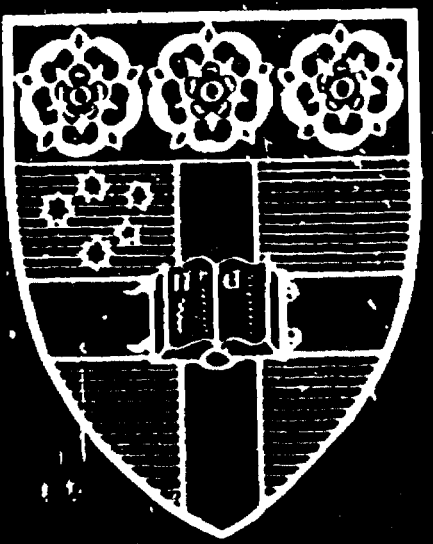
These papers cover planning, organization, and administration of programs conducted by the Department of University Extension of the University of New England (New South Wales); they are concerned primarily with rural extension. The first paper reviews elements of program planning and program implementation in general. The second evaluates an extension program by applying a model of the program planning process developed by Boyle. Papers three and four describe in detail the planning and organizing of non-residential and residential schools for adults, with emphasis on the challenge these techniques hold for the adult educator. The fifth paper is a reappraisal of the place of the arts in the education of adults. The sixth paper stresses the importance of thorough program planning and draws some implications of the present monograph for the adult educator. (Editor/NL)



PLANNING AND ORGANIZING PROGRAMMES IN ADULT EDUCATION

Berry H. Durston (editor)





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PLANNING AND ORGANIZING PROGRAMMES IN ADULT EDUCATION

BERRY H. DURSTON (editor)

OTHER TITLES IN THIS SERIES

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PREFACE

There are few publications dealing with adult education as it is practised in Australia, yet there is a rapidly expanding volume of adult education activity in this country. More and more people are becoming involved both as adult participants and adult teachers. However, few of the people engaged in adult education in the capacity of voluntary or professional workers have had any formal preparation for their jobs. There is clearly a felt need to assist practising adult educators, whether they be volunteer, part-time or full-time leaders, teachers or administrators to clarify their ideas and to improve their programmes.

This can be done by developing a body of knowledge about adult education which could form the content of courses of study at the tertiary level for intending as well as practising adult educators. At the same time this developing literature could be drawn upon by other adult educators who are not able to enrol for such courses of formal study in the area of adult education yet who feel the need for keeping abreast of developments in their field and infusing fresh ideas, methods or techniques into their programmes.

The beginnings of teaching in the practice of adult education are evident in Australia. For example, the University of New England offers a Diploma in Education in which candidates may specialize in Adult Education. Perhaps, before very long, it may be possible to develop full post-graduate diploma or degree courses in adult education. In the meantime it is important that research and writing on all aspects of adult education be encouraged.

The scope of the present monograph is limited to the planning, organization and administration of a number of programmes conducted by staff of the Department of University Extension of the University of New England. Located as the University is in a rural environment it is natural that the papers should be concerned primarily with rural extension. They reflect to some extent the geographical factors of size and dispersion of population, the considerable physical distances - and also the limited resources available in terms of finance and staff. The activities described illustrate ways in which educational experiences have been structured to cope with these factors. However, the lessons to be derived from the study of these programmes have considerable relevance for the practice of adult education in the more densely populated centres of Australia.

The papers are so arranged as to take the reader from theoretical considerations in planning and organizing programmes in adult education to practical applications of this theory. In the first paper the writer reviews elements of programme planning and considerations for programme implementation in general. The second paper attempts to evaluate an extension programme by applying a model of the programme planning process developed by Boyle. Papers three and four describe in some detail the planning and organizing of non-residential and residential schools for adults, with emphasis on the challenge that these educational techniques hold for the adult educator. The fifth paper is a reappraisal of the place of the arts in the education of adults. Finally, the sixth paper stresses the importance of thorough programme planning and draws some implications of the present monograph for the adult educator.

In the opinion of the writer, all of the papers serve to underline the educational contribution which the adult educator makes to the programmes he plans and organizes even if he himself does not teach directly in them.

January 1969

Berry H. Dutton

CONTENTS

PROGRAMME PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

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Elements of Programme Planning

An adult education programme is a series of learning experiences designed to achieve, in a specified period of time, certain specific instructional objectives for an adult educational activity, the total adult offering of an institution or the whole range of educational activities for adults available in a given community. For the purposes of the present discussion, the term "programme" will be defined as being a particular adult educational activity or an interrelated series of such activities.

Programme planning denotes the action of the agent in designing an educational activity such as preparing a meeting, structuring a class, or arranging a group discussion. As such, programme planning is an essential component in the development of effective adult education activities. There are a number of basic and integrated elements in any educational programme. They include:

1. The determination of needs.
2. The identification of educational objectives.
3. The structuring of learning activities.
4. The evaluation of achievement.

Each of these elements should take into account the nature of the adult learner, the principles of learning and the variety of alternative educational resources and methods at the adult educator's disposal.

If a programme of adult education is going to meet the needs of the potential participants and, at the same time, achieve the objectives of the sponsoring institution, there is a need for a clear perception on the part of the organizers of the aims and objectives for which the programme is being devised.

Determining the Needs

Adult education is basically a voluntary activity, and will only attract adults while the programme appeals to them as satisfying educational or other needs. Education is a process of growth and personal development and, as such, the planning approach should take into account the interests of the potential clientele in order to attract them to the programme. The interests and needs of the clientele may be ascertained through enquiry and observation, psychosociological community study, counselling and student involvement in the planning process, which in itself may be treated as an educational experience. Consideration should also be given to the problems of the heterogeneity of educational background and experience and the influence of stage in lifecycle on such factors as the interests, needs and motivations of likely participants. The stated objectives of the activity should be in harmony with those of the institution responsible for the activity. Objectives may differ from institution to institution. The goals of the university in adult education may be at considerable variance from those of the evening and technical college, the voluntary body or the state board.

It may be both possible and desirable to involve local citizens and potential participants in the planning of educational activities in addition to subject matter experts and adult educators. This practice should serve to spread the opportunity for participating in programme planning and, at the same time, ensure that the wishes of the clientele are being considered as well as those of the professional educators.

A study of the principles involved in programme development reported in de Brunner found that:

> The more successful (extension) agents, after getting the pertinent facts, emphasized the importance of developing the capabilities of the people, made planning itself an educational process, planned the programme with the local people, including as many as possible in the process, and arranged the programme to get maximum co-ordination with other agencies, ... The less effective agents were highly vocational in their approach, did no surveys of conditions either in communities or in the county, provided little educational experience, developed the programme mainly themselves, used organized groups very little and provided for little co-ordination with other agencies.[1]

Identifying the Educational Objectives

Goals need to be precisely and clearly stated in order that they may be translated into specific learning tasks. There should be a statement of the objectives for the total activity and, more specifically, goals for each particular session. Broad statements of objectives such as developing an appreciation of Australian literature must be cast into terms of specific objectives. In this way, it should be possible to break down the general, overall aims into more manageable units. Such objectives need to be achievable, in harmony with other objectives to which the adult educator is committed and have agreed meaning and acceptance to all. The problem of stating programme goals, in objective terms, is one of the most difficult tasks in adult education. It requires considerable imagination, time and thought to translate themes into curricula and to find ways of bringing to bear on particular issues the compartmentalized disciplines in which knowledge tends to be organized. In addition, the total pattern of activities should provide the stimulus and wherewithal which will equip the adult to continue to learn and to relate his learning experiences to his ongoing life after the particular activity has terminated.

Thiede[2] outlines five categories of sources for programme objectives. They are summarized below:

Source	Outline
1. Society	• the values held by and the needs of society. These may be complex, changing and in conflict. It is necessary to devise categories or major groupings of needs in order that studies may be systematic and manageable. It may depend to some extent on the interests and approach of the educator.
2. Institutions	• the organizational auspices under which adult education is conducted may provide the objectives for the programme.
3. Individuals	• the needs and interests of the individual. These may be psychological needs such as belongingness, participation, status, security or developmental tasks.

4.	Subject Matter	- the knowledge, skills and abilities of the content material suggest objectives.
5.	Learning Theory	- the attainability of objectives, the sequential ordering of objectives to aid learning.

Structuring the Learning Situation

There is a need to utilize the widest possible variety of resources to meet the needs and interests of adult participants. The full range of methods, techniques and devices which might be employed in attaining the programme objectives should be explored in determining the most appropriate method for the task in hand. The nature and the extent of the content and the learning tasks influence the choice of resources.

Verner and Booth suggest some factors which affect the choice of the most appropriate process for a particular adult education programme:

> A competent choice requires extensive knowledge of the learning process, of the nature and interaction of groups, of the sociocultural characteristics of participants and the efficacy and appropriateness of the various methods, techniques and devices.[3]

Through the specific tasks of the programme, the adult learner must be led from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex, from his present state of knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviour towards the explicit objectives of the programme.

A combination of factors such as the possible ways in which the potential learners might be organized, the nature and objectives of the specific learning programme, and the resources and capabilities of the institution or agency offering the programme must be considered and often a compromise choice must be made. A wise choice is crucial to the success of the enterprise.

A selection of the methods tends to restrict the range of choice respecting the use of techniques and devices. For example, an individual method such as correspondence precludes any techniques involving face-to-face interaction such as group discussion. Similarly, the nature of the learning task predetermines to some extent the range of suitable techniques. Other factors, such as the educational level and experience of the participants, the abilities of the teacher, the limitations inherent in the technique, the availability of facilities and equipment, and the nature of the learning process itself will also influence the choice of the most appropriate teaching techniques.

Boyle[4] point out that the programme planning process should be continuous and allow for flexibility. This may be considered to apply at the institutional level over a period of time and at the level of supervising the particular adult education activity. There is a need for continuous re-appraisal of the progress of the programme in order that adjustments and re-scheduling may occur during the activity. It is therefore essential that provision should be made for programme evaluation and appraisal.

Evaluating Achievement

Evaluation is an essential aspect of good programme planning. It offers the opportunity to assess the educational value of a particular programme and the means of strengthening and improving future programmes. Therefore, evaluation must be in terms of clearly stated programme objectives. Evaluation must go beyond the readily quantifiable aspects of adult education such as attendance figures and the income derived from enrolment fees to assess the actual extent of growth or change in

adult learners (in their knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviour) which is the outcome of particular educational experiences.

Programme planning can benefit greatly from formal evaluation because evaluation procedures necessitate the translation of broad statements of objectives into terms of specific objectives couched in measurable terms. This, in turn, should facilitate the structuring of appropriate learning activities.

Once the evidence has been gathered and processed, judgments can be made about the extent to which the programme objectives were achieved, the appropriateness of the objectives, and the effectiveness of the learning experiences provided by the programme. Modifications of course objectives, the learning situation, the course content and even the evaluation process itself may need to be made. The quality of these judgments will depend largely on the extent to which each step in the evaluation process has been soundly and systematically planned and executed.

It should be apparent from the above discussion that, whenever possible, evaluation should be practised as a continuous activity, closely integrated into the programme from the initial stages of planning.

Programme Implementation

The administration of an educational endeavour should at all times be in terms of creating the best possible situation for learning to occur. Administrative considerations involve making decisions within the framework of the overall policy of the institution with the prime objective of making best use of the total resources of the agency to meet the continuing educational needs of adults in the community. These administrative matters include programme publicity and promotion, finance, facilities, staffing and time-tabling.

Programme promotion is a vital part of the adult educator's task and requires considerable time and attention. Few activities can be sustained if the enrolment is insufficient to justify their continuation. Many agencies have rules which regulate the minimum enrolment number required for a class. And, of course, it is in the interests of the success of a programme that the size of the class be sufficiently large to allow adequate group interaction for the purposes of discussion, etc.

During the planning stage, careful consideration should have been given to the potential audience - its size and characteristics. This information will influence the adult educator's approach to promotion and publicity. For instance, certain programmes are designed for a fairly well identified and limited number of participants, others for a large and less well defined clientele. If the activity has been planned in co-operation and consultation with some other organization, e.g. a professional body or a club, then the main source of students will probably derive from that body and people of related interests. Publicity will therefore centre on members of the organization through established channels of communication. On the other hand, a landscape painting class is likely to attract people from a wide range of occupations and advertising may need to be extremely broad if it is to reach the widest possible public.

The sort of activity, the amount of money available for publicity, the most appropriate advertising media (paid advertising in the press or over radio or television, press releases, club circulars, mailing lists) and the timing of announcements (more advance notice is usually required for a residential school in some other locality than for a local weekend school) will influence the publicity and promotion schedule. Above all, the publicity should not only inform the potential participant of the availability of educational opportunities, but also the relevance of these programmes to the needs and interests of particular individuals.

As a general rule, adult education is left to operate on very limited financial resources. In many cases

special accommodation is not provided and classes are conducted in school rooms or halls which are "borrowed" or rented for the purpose. Inadequate furniture, unsuitable rooms and the "role of guest" place adult activities at a serious disadvantage in comparison with primary and secondary education. However, in some towns properly equipped centres have been established solely for the use of adults. Within the meagre budget with which most adult educators must operate, very careful use must be made of money. Whenever possible, rents, paid advertising and other course costs such as lecturers' fees and travel and accommodation expenses must be minimized. As a general rule, student fees must be calculated in the light of the total cost of providing a programme, rather than the educational importance of the activity. Otherwise, a course which is expensive will tend to restrict the development of a larger, more balanced programme because of lack of funds. However, financial provision varies so much from place to place that particular adult educators face quite different budgetary problems. Still, the fact remains that the programme an adult educator can mount depends to a large extent on his financial resources.

A little has already been said about the general lack of buildings specifically designed for work with adult groups. Small seminar or discussion rooms comfortably furnished for adult use are rare in Australia. School rooms capable of taking forty or fifty children and furnished with desks and chairs suited to children are commonly the only rooms which are readily available to adults. Perhaps, as the education of children becomes less rigidly formalized, rooms designed for small groups of sixth formers and multi-purpose convertible rooms may become available for adult education, but these are likely to be poor substitutes for community centres which can be used solely for adults during the day or night. Until such provision is made, the quality of adult teaching will continue to suffer. Lack of library facilities, audio-visual equipment (sometimes shared with the school) and other teaching devices may also serve to influence the quality of the work and the kind of activity which can be offered.

The difficulty of obtaining suitable teachers and discussion group leaders for adult classes is particularly apparent in areas outside of major cities. The number of people competent to teach is usually limited to school teachers and gifted amateurs. Therefore, the range of subject-matter is somewhat restricted. The teacher of adults must have greater mastery of his content than is necessary for teaching children. Adults have a wider range of experience and are more perceptive than pre-adults. In these circumstances, lecturers may have to be sought in distant areas necessitating travel and this tends to restrict activities to the intensive weekend or full day school rather than regular weekly meetings. Some centres can only be serviced in this manner by occasional schools or discussion courses. Even then, the course must be made to appeal to a relatively high proportion of the local population if there is to be sufficient enrolment to make the activity viable.

Whilst it is necessary to select an instructor of repute in the subject-matter of the course, it may be necessary to consult in some detail with him on the programme and the methods, techniques and devices he will employ. (This may apply even if the instructor engaged is a competent school teacher.) As a general rule, the adult organizer needs to be present throughout the activity to supervise the course and ensure that it runs smoothly and successfully. Any amount of pre-planning can be fouled up by hitches on the day and sometimes adjustments or suggestions need to be made when the programme is underway.

Many adult educators like to do some teaching themselves. Whilst this may be a good thing, the adult educator should be careful to prepare at a high level even though he may have considerable administrative burdens in relation to the organization of his total programme of activities. Whether a particular adult educator can afford to teach or not will depend on the total staffing situation of his centre and the availability of other equally competent persons.

Scheduling requires careful consideration of a number of things. If we take the example of a residential or weekend school, we must consider how much time can be allowed for particular parts of the programme,

and whether or not certain sequences of activities will be necessary. The objectives of each part of the programme will need to be considered. For instance, it may be necessary to give a formal lecture to the total group in order to acquaint the group with certain knowledge prerequisite to adequate discussion of a topic in small groups. This is usually the case where the clientele have widely divergent backgrounds of knowledge of a particular subject. Adults cannot be expected to remain attentive to lecturers for long spells (just as children may become restless) and it is usually desirable to allow plenty of opportunity for individual, small group interaction as well as movement.

In the case of organizing a regular weekly meeting, it may be desirable to take into account evenings which adults already tend to have committed. In some communities such variables as climatic factors or seasonal demands on time and labour and the local pattern of living should be considered. Some activities might be better scheduled during the day and others at night. Factors such as the most suitable time of day, appropriate length and number of sessions, etc., must be borne in mind. Otherwise a very worthwhile programme may suffer cancellation because it was scheduled at a time inconvenient to a large number of people who would have enrolled and benefited greatly had it been arranged for an alternative hour of day.

These are just some of the points which must be considered. Undoubtedly, adequate scheduling requires a great deal of time and thought. Some measure of flexibility is desirable in any programme.

Conclusion

This paper has reviewed elements of programme planning and considerations for programme implementation. There is little doubt that the very real problem of drop-out in some adult programmes is connected to the quality of the preparation that has gone into planning and implementing adult educational activities. Some writers suggest that adult counselling prior to enrolment can be a useful service. By this means adults can be helped to analyze their education needs and to select the most appropriate way of meeting these needs.

The papers which follow illustrate various aspects of the planning and implementation of educational activities for adults touched on in the present paper.

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PROGRAMME PLANNING : AN AUSTRALIAN EXPERIENCE

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The purpose of this paper is to assess an area of extension planning carried out in northern New South Wales by reference to the five phases of a programme planning model developed by Boyle.[1] Boyle's model is a synthesis of research into the practice of programme planning in Wisconsin. The model constitutes a standard by which programme planning projects may be evaluated. This paper is centered on the formation of the New England Rural Development Association (N.E.R.D.A.), its assessment of rural problems of the area, and its part in the New England Radio Farm Forum.

The assessment is made difficult for a variety of reasons, the most obvious of which are:

1. The events described were undertaken with a knowledge of programme planning which lacked the clarity made possible after evaluating the project.
2. The description is based on memory, which is always subject to distortion. In this case the distortion could be increased by the need to fit the events into Boyle's model of the programme planning process.
3. The programme planning process outlined by Boyle is based on the North American system of adult education and agricultural extension and has yet to be recognized as useful in the New South Wales environment.

The Environment

The statistical division of the Northern Tablelands is an area embracing seven shires and two municipalities, and has a population of about 60,000. About 45 per cent of the male labour force is engaged in primary production. The main products of the area are wool, beef cattle and fat lambs, so that its economy is dominated by the grazing industry. Properties vary in size from 600 to 16,000 acres, the most common size being 1,000 to 4,999 acres which constitute 45 per cent of the properties of the Northern Tablelands.[2]

Production and productivity of the area have increased considerably since the war, largely because of investment in fertilizer application and rabbit control. Increased carrying capacity, caused by improved pastures together with improved stock and an increased turn-off of meat producing animals, has raised the standard of living in the area. Despite this general lift in production and productivity, only about one third of the properties are well developed, and many property owners are reluctant to borrow money for property improvement, or undertake profitable and proved farming practices.

Agricultural extension for farm owners is provided by many agencies. The following list shows the agencies providing extension in the Northern Tablelands, and their specific staff positions.

Government

Department of Agriculture	2 agronomists 1 sheep & wool officer
Department of Soil Conservation	1 officer
Water Conservation and Irrigation Commission	1 officer
The demonstration experimental farms	1 manager
Rural Youth Organization	2 organizers

Independent

Australian Broadcasting Commission	1 rural officer
Department of University Extension	4 lecturers

Private Enterprise

Banks, stock and station agents fertilizer company, seed salesmen commission agents, salesmen	unknown number of people

Each agency pursues its own extension policy, and there is no co-ordination of their activities. Frequently they compete for the same audience, and few officers acknowledge each other's existence.

The Department of University Extension (then Adult Education) was inaugurated in 1954 when the New England University College was given complete autonomy. Between 1945 and 1954 one adult education tutor had worked in the area, developing traditional liberal adult education programmes, and inaugurating one, two and three day local schools in subjects concerned with grazing - for example, soil science, animal genetics and farm management. A significant innovation in the Department's work was undertaken in 1956 when a Community Development project was commenced in the Clarence River area of the north coast of New South Wales. The success of this works was recognized and extended to the Northern Tablelands in 1960, when the Australian Wool Board granted the Department $18,000 for three years' experimental work in "Agricultural Extension and Community Development."

By 1960, the Department of University Extension had been engaged in agricultural extension with a philosophy of community involvement in assessing its educational needs. However, this paper is specifically concerned with the work developed as a result of the grant provided by the Australian Wool Board.

Boyle's Five Phases

PHASE I

> The Formulation of a Broad Organizational Philosophy, Objectives, Policies, and Procedures for Programme Planning in the State Is Part of the Process Through Which Programmes Are Planned." [3]

The most appropriate statement of the policy of the Department of University Extension, as it relates to the Wool Board project, is that it:

> ...is concerned particularly to extend the activities and values of the University to people who are not students working in formal degree programmes....(when) an increasing number of adults should look to universities for help in keeping abreast of change and understanding its implications.... our extension programme is not something grafted on to the main body of university public relations...It is an integral and essential part of the total pattern of university activities. We have tried to do this by

developing three kinds of activity - residential adult education, community development, and regional programmes... the Department planned to develop three kinds of activity in Community Development: a community consultative service; a training programme for community leaders; and research in community development.[4]

This can be taken as an overall policy statement - wide enough to be interpreted by the staff as pointing the general direction of the Department, but not specific enough to dictate method, content or procedures. The Director has always maintained that staff are professional workers, and have a professional responsibility to develop their work as they interpret local conditions and the needs of the populations they serve. Consequently, there is adequate scope for the development of individual philosophies and programmes as well as the concomitant responsibility for the ultimate success or failure of the individual's actions.

The theme running through the literature, and especially Boyle's statement, is that staff should understand the philosophy, objectives and procedures for programme planning. It is doubtful if the policy statement of the Department of University Extension at the University of New England would correspond to Boyle's first phase. In fact, it is extremely doubtful if the staff thoroughly understood the implications of the policy. It is certain, however, that the staff did not reach adequate agreement as to the objectives or procedures to be adopted by the Community Development unit of the Department of University Extension. Consequently the necessary actions related to Phase I were not undertaken by the staff of the Community Development unit.

When other agencies are examined, it appears not to be unusual that neither the Department as a whole, nor the staff members in the Community Development unit in particular, understood the principle of the need to develop an understanding of objectives, policies or procedures for programme planning. Research summarized by Boyle indicates that it is reasonably common for extension personnel to be inadequately prepared for programme planning activities. He outlines obstacles to achieving successful programme planning tasks as follows:

1. Lack of training in programme planning.
2. Insufficient direction from the state office.
3. Limited agreement on objectives and procedures for planning.
4. Difficulty in determining the role and responsibilities of personnel and specifically planning committees.
5. Difficulty in collecting and interpreting background material.
6. Difficulty in identifying real problems.[5]

The administrative philosophy of the Department of University Extension assumes that the responsibility for the programme of community development is that of the people working in the unit, and consequently this critical analysis is concerned specifically with their work, and not with that of the entire Department.

PHASE II

The Identification and Clarification of a Need and Preparation for Planning County Programmes is Part of the Process Through Which Extension Programmes Are Planned in a County.[6]

The second phase of programme planning can be described as those actions which legitimize and diffuse the need for programme planning among the community, and other agencies engaged in activities either

relevant or similar to the body originating the planning proposal.

The actions taken in this phase of the planning process can be summarized briefly as follows:

1. Appraise the nature and scope of previous planning activities.
2. Appraise the nature and scope of planning activities conducted by organizations with similar objectives
3. Involve people who may contribute to or participate in the actual planning of the programme.
4. The objectives and procedures for planning need to be defined, agreed upon and understood by those involved in the planning, and by related groups and organizations.[7]

The second phase of programme planning is the beginning of implementing the organization's objectives as evolved in the first phase of the total planning process. To the extent that the original objectives are not clearly defined, agreed upon and understood by staff, so will the actions in this phase be distorted and less successful than is desirable.

In the New England context, the necessary actions relating to this second phase were not undertaken. None of the agencies engaged in extension in the area (cited above) was approached, nor told about the ideas or plans of the Extension Department, nor were their activities examined by the extension staff. The traditional independent role of the University was maintained, with consequences which became serious as the project developed.

The failure of the Community Development staff to consider this important second phase is not surprising. In the first place, they were then unaware of the all sociological factors involved in programme planning, and they were engaged in experimental work which, by tradition, was assumed to be independent of other agencies. In the second place, Boyle's review of the relevant research indicates that many agencies either find the principles relating to this phase difficult to implement, or they fail to involve people from related agencies to an extent satisfactory to the planning agency supervisors. There is abundant evidence available which shows conclusively that an understanding and approval of programme planning by related agencies results in their assistance and support for the ultimate project.[8]

PHASE III

The Organization and Maintenance of a County Planning Group is Part of the Process Through Which Extension Programmes Are Planned.[9]

The actions which should be taken during this phase are:

1. Design the planning committee's organizational structure.
2. Determine the procedure for selecting and training the committee's executive, and selecting resource persons.
3. Define the composition of the committee.
4. Define the committee's responsibilities.
5. Evolve procedures for replacing committee members when necessary, and schedule meetings with prepared agendas.
6. Determine the capacity of the committee to represent the needs and concerns of the people they represent.[10]

The New England project reversed completely the actions outlined by Boyle for this phase of programme planning. The basic assumption underlying Boyle's outline of the planning process is that the initiative stems from the "change agent," and certainly from the extension agency. In the New England situation, however, the graziers (clients) to a considerable extent exercised the initiative for the project which laid the foundation for extension programme planning in a crude form.

As part of a residential adult education activity a combined school on Local Government and Decentralization was held in 1960.[11] Among papers submitted was one examining the situation of economic development in New England.

> Some of the graziers became concerned with the slow progress of the area, and, being familiar with the work of the University's Department of Adult Education in the field of Comm nity Development, approached the Director of the Department, Mr. A.J.A. Nelson, and suggested that the Community Development approach might be employed successfully in relation to the overall problem of the grazing industry on the Northern Tablelands. The Director of Adult Education explained to the graziers that the work of his Department in the field of Community Development was based on the principle that communities should be encouraged to make a systematic study of their own problems, with a view to ensuring that subsequent planning and action is informed and responsible. It was agreed that the first step in this Community Development programme would be the definition of the developmental problems facing graziers in New England, and that the Department of Adult Education would assist in making the study of these problems. This was the genesis of the New England Rural Development Association.[12]

The initial move after discussions with the Director of the Department of University Extension came from six influential graziers who selected other graziers to serve on the Council of the Association. No written procedures were formulated for the selection of members, nor was the purpose of the Council clear to all the Council members, the Department of University Extension, or any other relevant extension agencies. The overriding considerations of the Council were that the productivity of the area was not increasing because of the lack of effective extension; that they should make a survey of the problem; and ensure that their resulting planning and actions were responsible.

Despite the absence of established and agreed criteria for membership of the Council, it was both representative of the local primary producers' organizations and composed of key influential property owners in the area.

The action outlined by Boyle as appropriate to Phase III was not undertaken until after the New England Rural Development Association had undertaken a Problem Census of the area. The Association's constitution, procedures for selection and objectives were evolved between the fourth and fifth phases of Boyle's scheme. Discussion of the consequences of the staff overlooking the principle involved in this third phase will be developed later in the paper where it is most appropriate.

PHASE IV

> Reaching Decisions on the Problems, Concerns, and Opportunities Is Part of the Process Through Which Extension Programmes Are Developed.[13]

The actions taken in this phase are:

1. Collect and analyze social, economic and cultural data.
2. Identify means of improving conditions.
3. Identify priorities.
4. Define objectives, organizations and agencies who can contribute to the solution of problems and devise plans for the co-ordination of extension efforts.
5. There should be intensive involvement by local people and Extension personnel in analyzing background information and identifying problems and opportunities for improvement.[14]

Very briefly, this phase relates to the decision making process, except that no decisions are finalized and written up.

The New England Rural Development Association, in consultation with the Community Development staff, devised and undertook a census of the problems facing graziers on the Northern Tablelands. During 1961, sixty four neighbourhood meetings were held, involving some 1,100 people representing just under 800 properties.

The procedure at each neighbourhood meeting was as follows. After an introduction by the local person who had called the meeting a representative of N.E.R.D.A. asked participants to divide into groups of six, then as individuals to list the six most important problems confronting them in their occupation. Each group was then asked to agree on the six problems it saw as barriers to economic and social development.

The results were recorded and eventually collated by the staff of the Community Development unit. The final collation was written up by the staff and printed in a pamphlet.[15] The problem census showed that the most important general problems related to a lack of adequate extension concerned with pasture development, the absence of suitable finance for property development, and difficulty in obtaining suitable and adequate education for children in rural areas. In all, twenty seven separate problems were identified, but most fitted into the general conclusions shown above.

However only one action - the collection and analysis of data - was partially undertaken by either the N.E.R.D.A. Council or the staff of the Community Development unit. The other actions outlined by Boyle were not undertaken, and it should be concluded that Phase IV was not adequately covered in this case.

PHASE V

The Preparation of a Written Programme Document Is Part of the Process Through Which Extension Programmes Are Planned.[16]

The actions appropriate to this phase were undertaken by the professional staff of the Extension Department, and not by members of the New England Rural Development Association. It is, of course, necessary to stretch considerably the meaning of "programme document" in order to include the Problem Census Report under this term. Nevertheless, the New England work is the closest approximation to programme planning activities which can be examined here.

The last two phases of Boyle's programme planning concept are crucial for the long term successful involvement of lay people in the planning process. It may be rewarding, therefore, to describe the New England experience by reference to what was not done, and attempt to draw conclusions from these deficiences.

The New England Rural Development Association undertook the collection of facts as seen by graziers in the Northern Tablelands. Essentially, the problem census disclosed the "felt needs" of the rural community. These "felt needs" were accepted - at least initially - as the real needs of the area by the staff of the Community Development unit, and by the Council of the Association.

Two of the conditions relating to Phase IV are:

1. Pertinent information should be collected and analyzed regarding the social, economic and cultural conditions of the county.
2. Problems concerning opportunities for improvement in the county should be identified as the result of an analysis and interpretation of the information collected.[17]

These actions were carried out reasonably successfully by the New England Rural Development Association. However, neither the Association nor the staff of the Community Development unit attempted to carry out the other crucial actions associated with Phase IV. Thus

1. No priority of problems was established.
2. No objectives of recommendations were defined.
3. Potentially useful or co-operating agencies were inadequately defined.
4. No plans were devised to co-ordinate the extension efforts of relevant agencies.
5. There was no involvement of local people, or other extension officers, in the analysis of the survey data, the identification of problems, or in the evolution of a programme document.

The New England experience is almost identical with the position disclosed by research work in the United States:

> One of the difficult tasks in programme development is apparently that of making effective use of facts in the programming process. Case studies and an examination of numerous reports of county programme plans have shown that many facts are often hurriedly put together in some form by the county staff but they are not truly involved or understood or used by committee members in making decisions. We are suggesting that planning will be much more effective in terms of meeting real existing needs when the appropriate facts do become involved in decision making.
>
> Because participation in Extension programmes is voluntary, programmes must be based on needs or interests which the people themselves feel or can be led to recognize. Identification of needs and interests is complicated by the fact that people do not know what they are interested in, except in terms of what they know is available to them. The programme must appeal to people in terms of an answer to some inner urge. No appeal to a want is ever effective. Effective programmes grow out of basic information and needs that people come to recognize.[18]

In reviewing the New England work, especially as the University's extension activities were developed, it is possible to discern quite clearly the legitimizing role the New England Rural Development Association played in relation to the Community Development unit's extension programme. The radio farm forum conducted by the Australian Broadcasting Commission and the Department of University Extension provides a clear example of this legitimizing function.

In 1962 the Australian Broadcasting Commission and the Department of University Extension jointly organized a radio farm forum once each week for nine weeks. The topics discussed in the forum were chosen from the problem census conducted by the New England Rural Development Association. After a working agreement had been reached between the Extension Department and the Australian Broadcasting Commission, the New England Rural Development Association became a co-sponsor of the farm forum. The Association played a major role in organizing the listening groups necessary to the concept behind the forum. However, the Association played only a minor part in evolving the concept of the forum, though members of its Council were often chosen to serve on the broadcasting panel.

The following table shows clearly the importance of the Association as an organizing force behind the forum.

Distribution of Registered Listener Groups[19]

	1962	1963
New England Rural Development Association Groups	57	41
New England area but not associated with N.E.R.D.A.	10	13
Groups in other areas of Northern N.S.W.	7	20
	74	74

One of the major reasons for the good enrolment of graziers was the close relationship between the University and N.E.R.D.A., as well as the contacts made in the local groups through the Problem Census. In brief, the radio farm forum obtained support from the rural community because the project was legitimized by the New England Rural Development Association.

An Assessment of the New England Project

It has been shown that the extension work conducted by the Community Development unit utilized an association to legitimize its activities. It has also been shown that this association of lay people undertook a number of the activities associated with devising and planning an extension programme.

It is possible to utilize Boyle's model of the programme planning process to determine the omissions by the staff of the Community Development unit which were crucial in limiting the growth and the role of the New England Rural Development Association to that of a legitimizing body.

1. The professional staff of the Community Development unit were not adequately trained for the role they were to play in the project, and clear, defined and agreed objectives were not evolved in the preliminary stages of the project. The omission of actions appropriate to Boyle's first phase resulted in staff confusion, the absence of planning for subsequent action, and the failure to conceive a need for programme planning. Within the administrative policy of the Department, these omissions could have been overcome in the second phase, provided that the staff had become aware of the need to evolve its own policy, objectives and procedures.

2. The importance of Boyle's second phase was borne out by the long term results of the Extension Department's programme. The failure to consider the activities of other extension agencies, as well as the non-involvement of officers of other agencies, created hostility and a climate of suspicion. The officers of the other extension agencies were reluctant to take part in many of the Extension Department's activities because they believed they were being "used" and drawn into the programme as inferior professionals. This resulted in the Community Development staff having to sell their programme to other agency officers when their services were required, and consequently the execution of each activity was made difficult and involved more time than it should have required.

3. The failure of the staff to provide sufficient leadership in the organization of the New England Rural Development Association provides the most crucial reason for the project not developing beyond the fact finding stage. The Association began determining policies, objectives, procedures and responsibilities after it had collected some facts, but before it had analyzed the situation. Consequently the process of evolving a programme was stopped in a search for a purpose. In fact the Association took almost four months to evolve a constitution, and it lost a large element of public support because of the lapse of time between the Problem Census and the development of an extension programme. It can also be stated that the analysis of data became the responsibility of the extension staff because the Association was involved in the task of organizing itself.

Given these circumstances, the staff could not develop training programmes, nor could it develop leadership skills among the members of the Association's Council. It was, therefore, inevitable that the Association should become a means of legitimizing the Extension Department's activities.

Conclusion

It would be a mistake to conclude that this attempt at programme planning was a failure. Some very good activities were conducted with other agencies, and much of their success - measured by local standards - arose from the legitimization of them by the New England Rural Development Association. Many of these activities satisfied the "felt needs" disclosed by the Problem Census.

It should also be noted that both the staff and the executive of the New England Rural Development Association reviewed the progress of their work late in 1963. This review resulted in the Association undertaking problem solving surveys, with staff assisting in an advisory capacity.

Study groups consisting of members of the Association and other organizations have contributed significantly to the understanding and solution of some deep seated problems in the area. These problems have included War Service Land Settlement, Dingoes and Drought. At present the Association is engaged in a study of agricultural extension in the Northern Tablelands.

In the past, the New England Rural Development Association has shown zest and imagination, and has contributed considerable voluntary effort. In dealing with problems of the regional community, its enthusiasm and experience continue to provide stimulus for professional workers in this area of Adult Education.

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THE RURAL COMMUNITY SCHOOL : AN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION TECHNIQUE *

"Schools" is a term that has become useful in describing courses offered over two or three, or even more, successive days as distinct from those courses which are offered once a week over a period of several months. It has been fairly common practice to conduct these schools on a great variety of subjects -e g., music, geology, local history, literature or current affairs. In recent years, the Department of University Extension of the University of New England has developed two variations of this basic format. The first is the rural science school whose content is largely oriented towards the vocational interests of the man-on-the-land; the second caters for both vocational rural science interests and interests in the liberal arts, and this has been called the rural community school. As a general rule schools of both types enrol about 150 adult students.

The rural community school is planned with the firm realization that the land is not only a place where a living is earned, but a place where life is lived. As a general rule, the rural family tends to be more coherent and integrated, and coalesces more readily with nearby families than is typical of the urban family. As well, it should be borne in mind that the country town which services the rural area also demands acknowledgement as part of the total rural community.

The rural community school is designed primarily to offer vocational courses which will provide the farmer or grazier with some background of scientific knowledge in farm planning and management. At the same time it is hoped that a face-to-face confrontation of the farmer with the rural science research worker will be of mutual benefit, and that, as far as the farmer is concerned, some reduction will take place in the time lag between the enunciation of the conclusions of research and their application in rural industry. Thus in the rural community school we endeavor to avoid rule of thumb in favour of a statement of principles so that, hopefully, the farmer will subsume under these principles specific practices appropriate to the particular problems which he faces on his own property. No extension department of a university should attempt to offer the day-to-day advice and follow-up services which an extension division of a government can - and does - offer in New South Wales. Staff of rural faculties in a university have neither the time nor is it their function in the educational matrix to offer this sort of service. If basic principles of management and decision making can be established it is believed that farmers have the intelligence to apply them with the help of the expertise and resources of agricultural extension officers. It is always our practice to notify these officers of our courses and to invite them to be present for as long as their official duties will permit.

In a rural science school only vocational courses are offered but in a rural community school the programme consists of two strands. Strand A contains rural studies and Strand B liberal studies. The two strands are offered simultaneously so as to permit enrolment in both. Thus, a person who attends the session in Strand A on "Pregnancy Toxaemia in Sheep" (while a course in "Music Appreciation" is being held in Strand B) might elect to switch to Strand B for "Five Great Australian Novels" while "Management for Better Lambing Percentages" is being offered in Strand A.

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* This paper was prepared by the editor from notes supplied by A.C.M. Howard, Assistant Director, Department of University Extension, University of New England (Regional Office, Tamworth).

Fundamental to the success of these schools is the involvement of the local community in the planning process. We have found that this is best achieved by establishing a local school committee. This committee should be representative of the whole community and must be capable of thinking about, of defining and making articulate the apparent educational needs of the community and of assisting in translating those needs into subjects or topics around which a course of lectures over a period of two or three days can be developed. Schools can, of course, deal with a diversity of topics in both series; the problem is to avoid a "salad" which provides variety and tickles the palate but gives little of nutritive value.

The usual procedure for organizing a rural community school is as follows. When a request is received from a community group such as the Graziers' Association, the United Farmers and Wool Growers' Association or the Country Women's Association we ask the enquirer to proceed to the establishment of a local committee with as wide a community base as possible. Advice is offered about interests in the community which ought to be represented on such a committee.

Occasionally when we have received the membership list of such a committee we have found it necessary to suggest a broadening or strengthening of its representation. Our experience has been that once a committee has organized one school there is little need to vary its composition greatly for subsequent schools, although it is advisable to ensure that membership of future committees does not become the close preserve of the members of the "initial" committee or that an imbalance does not arise between the rural representation on the committee in comparison with the representation of the urban section of the rural community.

The committee meets to decide the topics that they would like the lectures to cover, to select suitable dates for the school and arrange a date on which they can meet with a representative (hereafter referred to as the "director") of the Department of University Extension to discuss the details of the school. The director of the school discusses the proposed programme with the staff of the appropriate academic departments of the university. He then finalizes the programme with the local committee who proceed to book halls, to arrange catering and to plan the local promotion of the school. The director, after further consultation with the university, draws up the programme, engages the lecturers, arranges travel and accommodation, prepares mailing lists and publicity brochures and organizes the provision of the necessary teaching aids, equipment and lecture notes.

It can be seen from this description that the local committee handles the local arrangements and that the role of the director of the school is to advise the local committee, to develop the educational programme in consultation with the subject matter experts and to devise appropriate learning situations. In addition, as director of the school he will usually make a very important contribution to the educational effectiveness of the enterprise by ensuring that the school runs smoothly. This may entail operating equipment, organizing the best seating arrangement, distributing materials, introducing speakers, briefing the chairman. The director, though primarily an educator, needs to be constantly on the alert to achieve this objective of smooth running.

The methods employed in presenting the teaching sessions at a school are varied to suit the experiences of both the lecturer and the students. As a general rule, lecturers are advised to spend about one third of the session on formal exposition, one third on discussion and questions, and the remainder on elucidation and summing up. An alternative, and sometimes preferable, format is the source paper - group discussion - plenary session pattern. This has the advantage of involving the group to a much greater extent than the general question - discussion period. It should prevent the compulsive talker from monopolizing the available time and encourage the retiring student to seek, in the small group situation, an answer to his question from a better informed member of his group. Alternatively the group leader may ask the question on his behalf in plenary session.

The group discussion has a further value in that it enables the group to relate the principles and practices set forth in the lecture to local needs and conditions. In order to create a climate conducive to learning, the director of the school might:

1. Select his group carefully and thoroughly brief them on their duties.
2. Allocate the students to their groups before the session begins.
3. Make provision for the groups to be accommodated so that discussion can proceed smoothly.
4. Ensure that a recorder is appointed.

The discussion may be either free or directed, or both. The lecturer might want the groups to discuss specific points, and, if this is the case, a typed list of topics to be discussed should be supplied to each group leader.

Even with the best intentions, lecturers are not always able to relate their subject matter to specific local problems in any particular field. Particularly is this true of rural science, where the application of principles may vary considerably from place to place even in the same locality. The group discussion helps to make the application of principles more effective, especially if the lecturer is unable to visit the district to assess the local situation prior to the school.

We have experimented with a number of different ways of balancing the generalized nature of the lecturer's experience with peculiar local conditions. For example, an afternoon at one school was devoted to hearing a prepared statement from five farmers (who represented a wide range of farming experience) on their soil management problems and the manner in which they had attempted to solve them. Each man spoke for about ten minutes. At the conclusion of his statement the soil science and farm management experts commented on each "case study" and not infrequently questioned the speaker. The lecturers then related the management practices to the principles of management and soil science. This was followed by a period of free discussion. Then the school broke up into small groups and later reassembled to report on the discussion that had taken place. The five farmers each made a final statement and the lecturers summed up. Our records show that in a school of ninety people, fifty seven questions were dealt with in the period. However, the effectiveness of this technique depends to a large extent on the ability of the farmers to present fluently, purposefully and economically their management story.

The virtue of this kind of teaching situation lies in permitting men who know the principles involved (the university experts) to illustrate these principles by subsuming under them the relevant and appropriate practices of local farmers. In this way the cleavage between theory and practice may be closed, the particular is related to the general, and the resulting experience is mutually beneficial to each party.

A number of problems relating to the conduct of rural community schools remains to be solved. Firstly, further experimentation must be undertaken to determine the most effective learning situations for particular educational purposes. Seconoly, effective follow-up procedures need to be established. Thirdly, the rural community school must somehow be integrated with other forms of instruction such as radio and television programmes and independent study. It is hoped that solutions to these problems would help to make the rural community school an even more effective agricultural extension technique.

THE RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL FOR PRIMARY PRODUCERS : AN EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGE.

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The University of New England has very close associations with the rural community, both at the local and the national level. At a time when the Australian primary producer is facing severe challenges to his technical and managerial abilities it is natural that the university should be acutely aware of its responsibilities in helping him to recognize and meet these challenges. This is, of course, very much in the interests of the welfare of the nation as a whole, for primary production continues to be a major sector of the Australian economy.

The Department of University Extension of the University of New England makes a contribution to agricultural extension by conducting rural science and rural community schools in country centres throughout northern New South Wales, community development projects in association with local groups of primary producers, and residential schools and seminars on the university campus at Armidale. Important publications related to problems in primary production can emanate from seminars, for example, Regional Research in Agriculture,[1] Soil Conservation[2] and Agricultural Adjustment.[3]

Valuable publications[4] can also arise from the annual residential graziers' schools - each of which normally concerns itself with one major theme: for instance, schools have been held on topics such as Soil Science, Animal Nutrition, Beef Production, Genetics, Wool, Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Intensive Utilization of Pastures, Animal Reproduction, Lot-feeding, Soil Conservation and Water Resources, and Animal Health. Schools for other sectors of primary industry such as orchardists and wheatgrowers are conducted less frequently.

A school usually runs for four and a half working days and the teaching pattern follows the same broad framework. The first two days are used to introduce relevant scientific principles; these vary with the overall theme of the school but always lie within the various disciplines encompassed by the biological and agricultural sciences. Once a necessary understanding of the fundamentals has been established the teaching goes on to examine the ways in which this basic knowledge relates to agricultural methods; thus, the second half of the programme often includes a visit to a local property with a view to highlighting some features of the work under review.

The Animal Health School referred to above is a good example of the general pattern of the teaching programme. This school was attended by sheep/cattle graziers and by poultry producers. All members attended the first two and a half days of sessions on relevant aspects of basic physiological knowledge; the nature of the pathological condition; immunology; the principles of disease spread and control, etc. After this basic introductory material had been presented the school split and the poultrymen had two days focussed on management for disease prevention and its control in poultry whilst the graziers spent the same time on similar themes related to sheep and cattle. The applied aspect of any programme is

designed to give those present a better understanding of effective stock and pasture management which might provide a basis for sound decision making.

The residential school for graziers usually attracts an enrolment of between 120 and 200 people annually. The enrolment for the school on the Intensive Utilization of Pastures conducted in 1965 was so heavy that two schools were held, one in February and one in May (each with an enrolment of about 200 people). The schools attract people from every state of Australia.

Of course, residential schools of this kind present particular educational challenges. For example, the heterogeneity of the adult students in terms of experience, knowledge, level of education and intellectual capacity and the sheer size of enrolment create problems for the educator. Many participants are young men just out of agricultural college; others are older men with little formal education; some are extension officers or senior members of advisory staffs of large commercial organizations; many are well - read in the topic before they reach Armidale and are experienced managers; many are quite the opposite; several are from large properties, employ managers and themselves have been on world trips "to see how the other fellow does it" - but many are from small properties and are making a real sacrifice in time and money to be at the school at all. The teaching situation must take into account this diversity of background if effective learning is to result.

When there are as many as 100 people or more at a school the potential educational effectiveness of laboratory demonstrations and visits to local properties can be considerably reduced. Further, it is almost impossible to provide enough skilled discussion leaders and resource people to man a multiplicity of small discussion groups, and valuable time is invariably lost in dispersing for group discussion and reassembling for plenary sessions. One solution to this dilemma might be to replicate the school on five occasions for 40 people at a time instead of conducting one school for 200 people. However, experience has shown that it is very difficult to bring together the expert lecturers and resource people on more than one occasion - quite apart from the cost of this alternative.

There has been a tendency in the past to ask leading authorities to lecture on each of the various aspects of the overall topic covered by a school; we are now moving away, to some extent, from this practice. Whilst such an arrangement has the potential advantage of placing the most up-to-date knowledge in any research field at the disposal of the members of the school it can well be argued that this is not necessary, and that it is even disadvantageous to operate at a "frontiers of knowledge" level for these activities. The "leading authority" approach often results in a number of people giving single lectures so that discontinuities arise in the presentation of material, the teaching is not well integrated and teacher-student rapport is more difficult to establish. Close prior consultation with the director of the school on details of content and method of presentation is not easy to arrange when lecturers are recruited from as far afield say as northern Queensland, South Australia and Tasmania.

It has not yet been possible to establish extensive follow-up activities and evaluation procedures. In the future it may prove possible to link rural science and rural community schools conducted in various country towns more closely with the residential schools at the university so that problems which arise in applying newly acquired knowledge to farm practice could be discussed. Such informal discussions would be of enormous value in helping to evaluate the effectiveness of the residential school itself as well as serving to extend and consolidate appropriate learning.

It may prove possible to structure some controlled experiments on the comparative effectiveness of conducting big schools as against small schools. Alternatively, a team of evaluators might visit the properties of a sample of participants some six to twelve months after the end of the school in order to assess the impact that the school has had upon local farm practices. Further matters requiring

investigation include the motivation of the people who attend the schools and their formal educational limitations, since these factors may call for a modification in the type of teaching approach employed.

The retention of a mass of factual matter is not important. What is important is that general principles are understood; that it is seen how the parts relate to the whole; that it is appreciated that glib judgments, based on inadequate factual data or a misinterpretation of data, can be misleading. It is clear that the schools in their existing form are well worthwhile. There is no doubt that the participants have their horizons broadened and depths of understanding increased; that an acceptance is created of the dangers of taking facts at their face value and thereby the dangers of superficial and false assessments; that an understanding is given of the rigours and time-consuming nature of research and of the need for quality research in the investigation of problems and in the establishment of basic facts and relationships.

An important aspect of the school's influence is that the participants gain a great deal in an informal fashion by talking with a wide range of fellow primary producers. These discussions can serve to clarify the principles expounded in the lectures, for when an individual talks to someone from another district who is operating under a different set of conditions (climate, size of property, type of production) the basic principles which apply even in varying circumstances may become more readily apparent. This deeper understanding can then lead to a better application of these principles to a particular situation. One should not underestimate the benefit to the individual adult of the educational and social processes at work during the school. The lecturers, too, may benefit substantially from their contact with the primary producers, particularly through the identification and discussion of problems which are raised in the course of the school. These problems are useful indicators, to the professional and academic people who are present, of research and extension needs.

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EDUCATION IN THE ARTS

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Appreciation courses in the arts have so long been a part of adult education programmes that they are open to the danger of inclusion without adequate direction or sufficient justification of their content. Traditionally they have been regarded as suited to providing leisure-time diversion and to creating new interests. At a time when mass media have assumed much of the task of instruction in these fields, and especially at a time when adult educators are being compelled critically to review work undertaken, a reappraisal of their planning and content would seem in order.

An Education Programme

While appreciation programmes are usually grouped under the general heading of Liberal Arts, it cannot be taken for granted that all such courses are automatically valuable as components of a liberal adult education programme. Audial or visual experiences are perhaps rewarding in themselves, but we cannot seriously accept that mere listening to good music or looking at paintings can *per se* provide educational experiences. Programmes can, however, be arranged with clear goals in view, and material presented and organized in such a way that these goals are achieved.

A clear concept of the *purposes* of adult education is taken by Paul H. Sheats to be one of the main pillars of programming. In his view "...There are at least three elements - purpose, planned study, and organization."[1] Indeed, the element of long-range purpose is held to be one of the features distinguishing adult *education* from other adult activities. So, too, with appreciation programmes the goals of the course, if based soundly on the needs of students (seen in relationship with the particular benefits of study in the subject concerned) can raise the level of experience from a mere entertainment to a truly liberalizing process.

Programme Goals

Acceptable goals for an adult education programme range from the very general to the quite particular, and while these can be diverse in concept, they should all be taken into account, as M.V.C. Jeffreys has pointed out:

> The aims of education cannot be discussed in general terms only. Principles must be interpreted in the context of actual situations, and particular programmes must be seen as interpretations of general aims. That is to say, education has both general and special aims. There are things which it is always the business of education to do; and there are the means by which these things have to be done in given circumstances. If the general aim alone is stated, we find ourselves presented with indubitable but useless truths. If only the special aim is stated, we have something practical but merely pragmatic and not related to first principles - i.e. not fully understood. If we are to frame a satisfactory philosophy of education it is therefore necessary to state a general aim and a special aim of education.[2]

The general and special goals of an educational programme come from two major source areas. First, there is the teacher's or the programme organizer's own philosophy of education, and his own view of the benefits that can be gained from study in his own subject field. The importance of this fact to adult education has been recognized by London and Wenkert, who claim that "...adult education is educational activity which takes place in an organized context and whether activity is defined as adult education depends on the purposes of the organizers of that activity.[3] The second and more important source area is found in the precise needs of students taking part in the educational programme.

The Educator's Viewpoint

In clarifying his own philosophy the educator can approach his subject from two angles. Taking the total view he can see education as the important means to maintaining and developing society. Jeffreys puts it thus:

> Education... is the community's means of doing something with its heritage of knowledge, ideas and attitudes. Whereas a system of education can obviously be a passive reflection of an existing social order, it can also be an instrument for changing that social order.[4]

On the other hand the process can be viewed as it affects the individual - the instruction and development of the individual student. This aspect has been aptly summarized by Connell and others:

> Education is a continuous reconstruction of experience. In its contrast with the ideas both of unfolding of latent powers from within, and of formation from without, whether by physical nature or by the cultural products of the past, the ideal of growth may lead to the conception that education is a constant reorganizing or reconstructing of experience. Mere growth or development is not enough; if it is to have the quality of education it must in some measure transform an individual's experience so that it takes on fresh meaning and adds to his power to deal with new material and new situations. Educative experience, therefore, involves activity and effort on the part of a pupil, and it requires a blending of the new with the old in the creation of fresh patterns of meaning.[5]

Appreciation in the arts as planned subjects in an educational programme can be central to both these major purposes of education, viewed from the social or the individual aspect. When Jeffreys speaks of a community's "heritage of knowledge" the traditions of music and art in western civilisation immediately spring to mind as great amongst our cultural treasures.

The Social Aspect

There is no question that a serious adult education programme in appreciation of the arts helps to create the climate wherein these treasures of the past can be conserved and cherished and transmitted to others. In many cases such programmes can and should lead to creative experiences within these disciplines and provide the opportunity for discovery of hidden talent, to the benefit of all society.

Particularly in country regions can appreciation classes be of great social value, as many country towns are culturally under cared for. While radio and television can bring artistic performances or creations into country homes, there is but small opportunity for country people to share communal experiences in appreciation. Here formal adult education must take its place alongside arts councils and other local organizations zealously striving to rectify the situation.

The Individual Aspect

While these programmes stand to benefit society as a whole in many (sometimes surprising) ways, they can also be a powerful influence in the intellectual and social development of the individual student. It must be acknowledged that only in the rarest circumstances is creative talent of a high order discovered through adult education programmes (though this definitely does happen), but the possibilities of individual development through appreciation are nevertheless considerable.

Harry L. Miller, who rather tritely lumps all appreciation programmes of this type under the heading "The World of Form" as if form were the only element in the construction of great works of art, sees in these programmes only a limited range of purposes.

> Three objectives anchor different parts of the scale: to help people express themselves, to teach them criteria by which to judge works of art, and to help them know about art through the traditional art history approach.[6]

These objectives are certainly relevant, but stated simply thus they lack much of the deeper significance which should be attached to them, for the scope of educational advantage to be derived by the individual student from appreciation courses is much wider than this.

First, introduction to new fields of experience is rewarding in itself. It has already been said that mere listening and looking are not necessarily liberalizing experiences. Carefully planned and graded programmes of appreciation can be vitally liberalizing, however, if they result in broadened horizons. They can free the routine-fettered mind from mundane pleasures and raise it to undreamt heights of intellectual (perhaps one could even add spiritual) experience.

Second, the fostering of a critical attitude to an art form has an enormous function in the liberalizing process, for an intellect can be freed from blind acceptance of the common-place and drawn out to discover new standards of excellence. The ability to think critically, fostered in an appreciation course, can assume a measure of transferability enabling the enquiring mind to look for better quality in other things, such as in standards of behaviour, in political or social values, in literature or other art forms, or in entertainment. It is freely acknowledged that study in arts appreciation cannot supply all the answers to self realization, but it cannot be doubted that it offers a superb medium for sharpening of critical perceptions and in a real sense provides at least one of "the learnings that enable the adult to critically re-examine his life and what happens around him toward the objective of developing more meaning and understanding of who he is, the nature of his life, what conditions and circumstances foster his own alienation,...[7]

Third, a new and sound knowledge in a branch of the arts can lay open to the individual a much wider range of social contact, and give a measure of confidence perhaps previously lacking.

Fourth, education in the arts seeks to meet one of the greatest challenges thrown down by the modern age, the wise use of vastly increased leisure time. As Walter L. Stone sees it:

> A leisure way of living has to be learned. This is the challenge of our technological society. Now that mankind has been freed from toil and long hours of work in order to make a living, he must learn to free himself from the clock and the frantic efforts to fill up time and to acquire and consume commodities.

In response to the challenge, Stone cites Dr. E.G. Methene's suggestion, "that the implementation of the values of ancient Athens, justice, citizenship, dignity, culture, education, Wisdom - the classical trinity of goodness, truth and beauty, is the opportunity afforded by our technological society.[8]

But behind and far above all the practical by-products of an appreciation course stands the inward satisfaction gained through a close acquaintance with the masterpieces of human creativity, which inexplicably but quite surely expands and fulfils human personality. Through their own peculiar powers of communication the great minds of culture past and present, with surpassing humility reach out and extend their owns personae towards those that seek to understand them. Somehow the magnanimity of the great artist is absorbed into the personality of his disciple to the undoubted benefit of the latter.

The Importance of Learning

All the particular benefits which the study of the arts can bestow justify their inclusion in an adult programme, and these benefits can be extended to mean the general benefits of learning itself. In taking the social purpose of adult education to be adaptation to change, Miller stresses the importance of a student's involvement in a programme:

> The core curriculum for adults, if we knew how to teach it, would consist of training in how to adapt wisely to change. Because relatively stable changes in behaviour defines learning itself, we should be concentrating on teaching adults how to learn.[9]

In other words, the important element of an adult education programme, regardless of subject matter, is the awakening among students of an attitude and spirit of enquiry, a whetting of the appetite which will arouse the desire for spontaneous and co[illegible]g learning. But arts programmes, perhaps more than any other, have their peculiar role, for they [illegible]ve a definite point of contact between the community in general and the academic world.

There is a still more important role for arts appreciation to play in education. It is often feared that modern man's development is moving inescapably towards the mass society of Huxley and Orwell. "An image of man as an acquisitive, grasping, consuming, and evil individual results in a view of man characterized by Lewis Mumford when he described contemporary man as being essentially a mass man."[10] Into the kind of society comprising such individuals, appreciation of the arts can breathe a spirit of individuality, of criticism and of liberalism. With this fact in mind, it is easy to see that the liberal arts will always have an important function to serve in the balanced adult education programme for, as Jack London warns, "we must provide experiences that liberate the individual from prejudices, irrational fears and ignorance."[10]

The Educator's Goals

From the educator's approach to his subject, then, and from his idea of the benefits to be gained from learning in his subject, a number of possible goals for any particular programme emerge. There is the social purpose of helping to create that sympathetic and receptive atmosphere which assists in preserving for future generations the great artistic heritage of the past. This same social climate opens up the possibility of discovering hidden talents which may have been passed over in earlier stages of general education. Arts programmes help to enrich and heighten the social experience of communities giving a balance to communal life which could otherwise be bent merely on the pursuit of income and the gratification of passing fancies.

For individual students the purposes in undertaking appreciation programmes are various. The possibility of transforming perhaps fruitless leisure hours into a truly creative experience is very real. The intellectual effort necessarily spent in becoming acquainted with new works of art has its own reward in a sense of satisfaction through achievement. These programmes provide a unique opportunity for exercise and development in self expression. They are particularly suited to the cultivation of a discriminating taste and a transferable critical faculty. An historian's approach to the study of the arts can assist in an understanding of the great progress made in society's collective intellectual advance and of the move-

ments of social change. Such an approach can in turn lead to greater mental flexibility and the facility to adapt to social changes as they are taking place today. And the readiness to adapt and undergo stable changes in attitude itself implies development of the individual personality and imposes a check on the growth of the mass man. This development is inspired and enriched by a sense of intimate communication with the great minds of creativity with a resultant expansion in the limits of individual personality.

Goals Based on Needs

But the crucial factor in determining satisfactory goals for any particular programme is not so much the possible benefits that can be bestowed as the actual needs of students taking part in the programme. Obviously, many of these needs will coincide with many of the purposes for the programme outlined above in as much as these are general and apply to any developing personality. All members of society need to have the ability to adapt to social changes as they occur, otherwise they become social drop-outs. All responsible citizens need to develop a reasonably sophisticated critical faculty if they are not to be duped by every other appeal to their immediate fancies. But each student attending an adult education programme brings to that situation a particular need that is felt, some appetite which has been sharpened, perhaps by the title or outline of the course, perhaps by the intention of friends or acquaintances to attend. Guidance is sometimes necessary to assist individuals to assess their own goals and to decide whether a particular course will help them towards the realization of those goals. Similarly, the teacher needs to ensure that his course will help the class members to attain the goals they have set for themselves. It is through such steps that concrete objectives for the course can be isolated and the content and method of subsequent meetings can be steered towards the greater satisfaction of those needs.[11]

Environmental Needs

While we are particularly considering the country region, certain needs created by the environment must be borne in mind. First there is the obvious question of isolation in towns at all remote from the city. It is possible that many or even most of the students will not have had the opportunity of hearing and seeing a symphony orchestra in action, or hearing at first hand an artist of international reputation and (presumably) quality. Certainly radio, gramophone recordings and television, with increasing technical sophistication and ever heightening realism, have brought the artist within reach of the remote audience, but it must be remembered that radio and television programmes in the arts are planned for the majority of viewers, city dwellers, who can reasonably be expected to have the more ready means to personal, first-hand experiences. In any case, no matter how far electronic techniques advance, they can never be expected satisfactorily to substitute for the intimacy and unique communication between artist and live, present audience, and through the artist, between composer and audience. A heavy responsibility is laid on the adult education teacher to make up for this serious deficiency in the situation by bringing, through his own personality, vitalized and expanded by his own intimate contact with the living art, something of the atmosphere of live and intimate communication.

His responsibility is made more serious by the fact that in many country towns the choice of entertainment and leisure-time activity is strictly limited. True, those members of the community who are naturally inclined to activity find more than enough to occupy their time in sports and social gatherings, but the fact of their limited scope remains. The adult educator often finds that his programme is to be one of the few really intellectual and cultural activities to be taking place in a small town, and he must make sure that his unique opportunity is not wasted, that the quality of his teaching and subject matter is sufficiently high as not to alienate those genuinely seeking a deeper satisfaction.

Continuing Education

A further general need for the adult educator to bear in mind in planning his programme is that of a continuing involvement on the part of the student. There is very little to be gained if a person limits his learning to a mere flirtation with the new subject. First, the teacher must endeavour to hold the

interest of his students throughout a whole series of meetings. Second, the programme organizer can help to foster a continuing interest by planning a series of courses over an extended period of time. While it is impractical and even undesirable, as a general rule, to limit enrolments at follow-up courses to those who have attended previously, the total programme can be made to treat varied but allied aspects of the subject in each segment so that knowledge gained in a previous course may be used as a starting point and be built on. If the previous courses have been presented in an absorbing manner, then there should be little problem in attracting a fair proportion of former students back into the continuing programme.

More important is it, however, that the student should be aroused to an attitude of ongoing interest in the subject. We have already seen that at first acquaintance with a new field of learning it is desirable that the student should be taught to be critical in attitude, and that he be encouraged himself to learn, and to learn spontaneously. If his interest can be guided along these lines, and his appetite sufficiently whetted, he can be transformed into an enthusiast for a particular subject and automatically become a continuing learner. This type of learning individual is likely to become, in a sense, a teacher, for his enthusiasm will doubtless be infectious, and be caught by a perhaps extensive circle of acquaintances. In some cases the enthusiasm will be permanent and a situation of continuing mutual education will have been established.

The best insurance for a continuing process is the establishment of societies devoted to appreciation. These, if their activity can be maintained at a healthy level, are the ideal situation for mutual education. It is quite possible that they can be formed as the result of weekly adult education classes or of weekend schools.[12] On the other hand, there is a great deal of scope for adult education agencies to aid the many societies which already exist in country towns in revitalizing their programmes and making their meetings more educational - more satisfying to the intellectual needs of members. Many country towns in New South Wales have their excellent Art Clubs, Dramatic Societies, Choral and Musical Societies and newly emerging Local History Societies. Very often their activities constitute the cultural life-blood of their communities. All the same, few of these would be unable to benefit from the stimulus which a carefully balanced adult education programme can provide.

Need, Effort, Satisfaction

But any continuing interest in a subject will largely depend on the way in which material is originally presented, and on whether or not the learning has become a significant part of the student's experience, and hence his personality. Psychologists are generally agreed that effective learning depends on three main elements. First, an established need on the part of the student, whether or not this need is expressed by him. If the need is expressed it will certainly go a long way in assisting the teacher to establish clear goals for the course, but, in any case, the teacher can base his course satisfactorily on general needs and on those discernible in the particular teaching situation. Second, a distinct effort on the part of the student is required for learning to take place. Third, the learning is fixed and implanted - absorbed into the student's very personality by a feeling of satisfaction of his earlier needs.

We have already dealt in some detail with acceptable goals, for appreciation programmes. Once the needs of the class have been established and goals worked out for the particular course, the teacher can then organize his material and presentation methods towards the achievement of the goals and fulfilment of the needs.

When a new series of lessons is contemplated, it is important that learning proceed from the area of the student's previously acquired knowledge, particular or general. Here again, it is necessary for the teacher to make a prior assessment of the knowledge and attainments of his students. Each new lesson should likewise be but a logical step from the preceding one.

For each meeting of his class the teacher should plan for some active involvement on the part of the student. It is not sufficient for the student to be merely exposed to a potential learning situation. If, for example, the music appreciation teacher is introducing a new piece of music to his class, he should not merely play it through and hope that some of it will be absorbed. He should rather ensure that his students are listening actively, and so he should prepare them to listen for certain things : for themes, for instruments, for tempi, for dramatic effects. He may even have them writing down their reaction to the new experience as it takes place. Once the new material has first been introduced, the experience should be reinforced by recollection. All the members of the group should be encouraged to express their opinions on the subject, to describe what they liked or disliked and to debate the others' points of view. In some groups discussion may be spontaneous, but more likely the teacher will need to stimulate discussion by his questions, carefully directed towards his established goals for the course.

Effort expended at a formal session of the class can be prolonged or repeated by individual work set for between-meeting times. Students can be asked to listen (actively) to new music and to read texts relevant to the particular works being discussed, to their composers, and to the styles and mannerisms of the period. It is probable that in the average class some students will be more advanced than others in that they will bring to the class an elementary knowledge of music theory. It will be necessary for these to be kept working at a level that will continue to extend them, and they can be set music scores to read as they experience new works. All students can be set the exercise of writing simple reviews, and of recording their reactions to new music. If the course is being treated historically, exercises in comparison and criticism are just as appropriate to the history of the arts as they are to political, economic or any other branch of history. But whatever the treatment, a critical approach should be fostered through active involvement in the methods of the discipline.

In some courses offered in adult education programmes, the means of ensuring satisfaction, and so completion of the learning process, are rather difficult to achieve, but this should present fewer problems in a course of appreciation. For if the particular work of art is approached and absorbed in the right manner, it quite obviously imparts its own satisfaction, a satisfaction that often intensifies with mere repetition of the original experience, but which is distinctly deeper and more transforming if it is accompanied by understanding - understanding of the creator's intentions, of the methods he has employed, of the form of his construction, of the devices he has used to achieve dramatic effect, of his motivations, of his tribulations, of his transports. It is still important for the teacher to encourage more complete satisfaction, quite apart from help in understanding the work, by giving his students a knowledge of their progress and artistic development. While it is not the usual practice in adult education courses in the arts in this country to include formal evaluation in the form of testing, the teacher, through his discussion with and questioning of the class, should be able to assess the progress of each member, and give praise and encouragement where appropriate. The more written exercises are set, the more concrete the evidence of progress, though caution should be exercised with certain adult students, who, used to being put off by written work, are determined to make no progress by this means.

Practical Courses

In the present climate of criticism, when adult education programmes are quite rightly subjected to examination for the value of their content, there is a tendency towards reaction against practical courses in the various branches of the arts. Possibly this tendency has been somewhat exaggerated by unconcious association with practical courses of limited artistic value, but it must be recognized that the essential feature of art is creativity, and this implies practical creativity. True, there can be such things as creative listening, creative reading and creative viewing, and these passively creative attitudes (creative because of creative thinking involved) have an important place in any appreciation programme. But this is not to say that practical work as such, because it is not always in the tradition of our university education, is anti-intellectual or low-level, sub-standard work. Provided that the goals of the course

are worthwhile, and that the methods of work employed conform to the highest principles of liberal education, practical work can often be the shortest and clearest way to the essential spirit of an art form. In short, all effective teaching and learning methods can be used to advantage in an adult education programme, whether or not our tertiary institutions have seen fit to employ them. On this issue Jack London recently asked his fellow American adult educators:

> How many of us seek more status and greater recognition by emulating what has been offered to students on the day campuses under the mistaken belief of maintaining standards? Whether such traditional day time programmes are relevant or not to our adult clientele is seldom questioned.[13]

Ultimately the choice of programme content and types of activity must be the responsibility of the adult educator. If he has the interests of his prospective students at heart, he will not be moved by the pressures of tradition and academic calling, but by the sincere desire to satisfy the needs of student and community with whatever resources of mind and matter he can summon to his aid.

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11. See Jensen, Glenn S. and Haltmeyer, Norman. "Let's Face the Music", Adult Leadership, 1967, 16, 5, 182, which describes a plan for a "community music programme". The need for knowing the cultural background of participants is stressed.
12. The Namoi Regional Office of the University of New England's Extension Department has for over a decade been working with and through various groups. During the past two years, for instance, two art societies have been formed, a choral society re-formed, and assistance has been given through classes and schools to historical societies, a third art group, to two Arts Councils and four lapidary societies. Considerable work has also been done in conjunction with service clubs, church groups and C.W.A.
13. London. op.cit. 291

SUMMARY AND COMMENT

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In his preface Mr. Durston points to the need, in Australia, for the development of a systematic body of knowledge about adult education. The present publication aims to contribute to this end. The contributions included in it have a great deal in common. Each is related to the programme of the Department of University Extension at the University of New England and written by a member of the Department. Each reflects the experience and special interests of the writer and some of the conclusions he has reached as a result of his work. Each tells of thinking which is in process of developing and each invites further discussion. None is about the planning of individual courses . The need to deal with individual courses could be a sufficient excuse for another publication. But each of the contributors is a director of a programme which includes many courses and many approaches and this publication is concerned to examine aspects of programme in this larger sense.

A common theme running through all the papers is the desirability of programming and planning with the co-operation of the community. Thus Mr. Durston quotes evidence from de Brunner in the United States of America that "The more successful agents after getting the pertinent facts, emphasized the importance of developing the capabilities of the people, made planning itself an educational process, planned the programme with local people, including as many as possible in the process, and arranged the programmes to get maximum co-ordination with other agencies". Similarly, in the paper produced from Mr. Howard's notes, we are told that the involvement of the local community in the planning of rural community schools - at best through a committee representative of the whole community - is seen as "fundamental to the success of the schools". And then again, though he rightly emphasizes the individual nature of artistic experience and appreciation, Mr. Maddox recognizes the importance of "communal experience in the arts"; sees his function, in part, as helping to develop an environment (or communal climate) favourable to the development of artistic expression and a better understanding of the arts; and stresses the need for involving adult students in the programming process.

Mr. Crew, in examining a programme in which he himself was centrally involved, and assessing it by reference to the five phases of a programme planning model developed by Dr. Boyle in the United States of America, acknowledges that the New England programme was developed with co-operation from the communities concerned, but concludes that it suffered from a failure to pay sufficient attention to the requirements set down by Dr. Boyle for each of the five phases of his programme planning model. One who observed the development of the programme to which Mr. Crew refers is prompted to suggest that some of Mr. Crew's strictures are unwarrantedly severe. But his statement of the achievements of the programme is fair and balanced, his conclusions are very relevant to the problems involved in future planning and his lack of complacency augurs well for future activities. His paper may be expected to have a full measure of discussion among his colleagues. One conclusion which could emerge is that since the project with which he deals was a pioneer venture in this country, little guidance was forthcoming from Australian experience and none from Australian models, and, in the circumstances, the project had to rely very heavily on the experience and the imaginative leadership of both the graziers who took the

initiative in approaching the Department of University Extension, and the members of that Department who worked with them. In the circumstances, too, it would have been unrealistic for those responsible to have relied for guidance on any one overseas precedent or model. But what does emerge clearly from Mr. Crew's analysis is the need to relate extension theory to the Australian scene, to develop Australian models on rural extension, and to use them intelligently. One would expect a model based on New England to be based on much the same principles as the Wisconsin model to which Mr. Crew refers, but its structure must surely reflect things that are distinctly New England: such things as the size and function of the University, its Australian environment and its relationship to other authorities in the field.

Mr. Crew mentions a lack of knowledge of the theory of programme planning among those responsible for the NERDA project. This is a reflection of the traditional British approach under which persons appointed to positions in university adult education have been required to have competence in specialist academic fields but not necessarily in the theory of adult education. This approach is, of course, consistent with the traditional British practice in relation to the appointment of teachers at other levels. The application of it to Australian university adult education has not been without its advantages. The people appointed to adult education departments in universities have included many who, besides being acceptable scholastically, have shown creative imagination and an ability to develop and direct programmes involving others. In fact, some of those people who have made important contributions to adult education have been lively minded people who, having encountered the problems, the possibilities and the theory of programme building for the first time after they have become practitioners, have reacted to these things with originality and spirit. But we are past the time when we can ignore the need for the adult educator to understand the many problems which programming sets for us and the many problems which it helps us to solve. Today's reality is that the adult educator must know the growing body of theory related to his profession.

This is nowhere more apparent than at a place like the University of New England where to have followed the accepted routine in adult education would have been to court failure. The authors of these papers have emphasized the need for a variety of approaches, including the lecture, the tutorial group and the discussion group, in their work, and they have touched on the question of developing co-operation between agencies in the total plan. For the extension department the business of arranging co-operation has many implications. It must start on the campus, for it is essential - particularly in inter-disciplinary programmes - that there should be co-operation between departments and faculties. It implies a bringing together of many approaches and activities from within the Department of Extension itself. In New England, for example, it is necessary that we make the best use of many things - the Rural Community School of which Mr. Howard writes, the Residential Schools with which Mr. James deals, regional activities of the kind which Mr. Maddox describes, study groups of the kind initiated through the New England Rural Development Association, pilot projects in community development, programmes using the mass media, reading groups, correspondence courses, and so on - to help ensure that the education of our adult students is continuous and effective. It implies, also, not only working with the full knowledge of other agencies, both state and voluntary, nor, for that matter, co-operating with them on joint ventures but, perhaps more important, stimulating them to independent thought and action and backing their endeavours with research and training.

It would be a mistake to think of programme planning as being entirely, or, for that matter, primarily, a matter for the agencies. It is also a matter for the village, the community and the nation. For example, the problem of the village in a developing country, which must decide how much of the education of each of the specialists concerned with agriculture, health, literacy and so on, it should take, is often met with the aid of a specialist in community development or general adult education. Similarly, in some modern cities there are councils of adult education, representative of both the consumers and the providers in adult education, which aim to ensure that there is an adequate exchange

of ideas between and among consumers and providers and that provision is, as far as resources allow, adequate and appropriate. Nor is programming for adult education at the national level unknown. In many developing countries educational planning is an integral part of planning for economic and social development, and,when this is so,a programme for the development of adult education is usually an essential part of the total educational plan. A national programme for adult education may seem less feasible in developed countries with an increasing multiplicity of providers in the field. But faced as we are in Australia with the problems, on the one hand, of a rapidly changing and increasingly industrialized society and, on the other, of impending automation, it would be difficult to sustain the view that programming at the national level is not necessary. While there is an unanswerable case for stimulating and encouraging variety in our provision of adult education, to leave the development of our total programme to the whims of the market with no attempt to foresee demands and needs and provide for them would surely be to invite disaster.